

# The Catholic Educational Review

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## THE CHRISTIAN BROTHERS \*

The Christian Brothers are a religious community devoted to the education of male children, mostly children of parents in modest circumstances. Their teaching is principally religious, though it includes all the branches taught in the best secular schools.

### THEIR INTEREST IS EDUCATING BOYS

The Brothers take the usual vows of poverty, chastity and obedience; also of permanency in their calling. They have no other interest or aim than the Catholic education of their boys. The first duty of the Christian Brother is his own good Christian life. He must set a personal example of all the virtues he daily inculcates. He brings, moreover, to the teaching of religion every possible aid and advantage in order to make it attractive and to anchor in the hearts of young boys its great truths. He watches closely the habits and manners of his young pupils in order to check evil at its roots and to plant betimes the seeds of every good virtue.

### THEIR STUDENTS HAVE WON RENOWN

In the Brothers' schools are taught all the branches that the children of the average citizen will find useful in life—reading, writing, history, geography, drawing, architecture, surveying, the elements of the sciences, natural and applied. Their schools and colleges are found today in every part of the world and distinguished men in every walk of life are proud to affirm their intellectual and religious debt to them. In our own country Cardinal

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\* Summary of the address of Bishop Shahan at the dedication of De La Salle College, Catholic University of America, October 18, 1930.

Hayes and Cardinal Mundelein, not to speak of other prelates, were educated by them.

#### FOUNDER CANONIZED IN 1900

The founder of this remarkable body of teachers was Saint John Baptist de La Salle, who was canonized by Pius X in 1900. Toward the end of the seventeenth century, moved by the wretched conditions, religious, disciplinary and educational, of the children of his native city, Rheims, he opened his first schools amid many trials and obstacles. When he died in 1719, he left behind him a religious corporation of 274 Brothers in 27 houses, with 9,000 pupils. They were known then and since as Brothers of the Christian Schools.

Catholic France of that day was greatly moved at the sight of so many young laymen devoting themselves permanently to the moral training and the secular instruction of the boys of their poorer French neighbors and raising at the same time considerably the level of their training for the average duties of their class and its social outlook.

#### A REMARKABLE TEACHER

Their holy founder was, indeed, a great pedagogue, one of the greatest the world has ever seen. He introduced several novelties into the common schools of France. To begin with, he established the simultaneous system of instruction, teaching the children by classes instead of each child personally, and thereby establishing the principle of the graded school.

Before him the children were taught in Latin and their school texts were Latin. He taught the children in French and gave them French school texts. He opened a training school for his young Brothers, a great novelty, the source and guarantee of the permanency of the Brothers' teaching and the model of our modern preparatory or normal schools for teachers. He also laid the foundation of later special schools,—professional schools, as it were, of agriculture, commerce, industrial crafts, etc.

#### SCHOOLS DEVELOPED RAPIDLY

In eighteenth century France these schools took on a remarkable development. Not only did this saintly man introduce new methods of instruction, fundamental and permanent and uni-

versally applicable and applied, but he may be said to have created the modern school texts or manuals that lighten so greatly the mental toil of the young and ignorant. He wrote for his Brothers useful guides for religious instruction, for a sincere Christian life, for the good manners, politeness and courtesy of the boys they taught.

In the French society of the time, grievously afflicted by the long wars of Louis XIV, the general demoralization of the old social order and the profound economic changes ushered in by the eighteenth century, this creation of Saint John Baptist de La Salle and his Christian Brothers was acknowledged by the clergy and all right-minded citizens as a real godsend. Pope Benedict XIII gladly approved the new work and gave it the title of "Institute of the Christian Brothers" as which it has earned for itself an immortal niche in the Temple of Education.

#### FRENCH REVOLUTION UPROOTED SYSTEM

The French Revolution cut it down, root and branch, and scattered its 123 houses, 924 Brothers and 36,000 pupils. But no revolution, however insane and bloody, could destroy the spirit of those good men, led by such teachers of youth as the incomparable Frère Agathon and others scarcely less famous. With the returning reason and sanity of the French people, the Brothers came back and began anew their illustrious career on their native soil.

Countless holy vocations were inspired by the Holy Spirit, and soon the Brothers had again covered all France with their admirable schools, also the new colonies of France in the Mediterranean and the Orient,—China, Japan, Turkey, Egypt, Italy Spain and Germany. England and Ireland called for the Brothers and they responded most generously. As early as 1846 Archbishop Eccleston opened a home of the Christian Brothers in Baltimore. Sixty thousand pupils are now in their schools in the United States. Their excellent colleges are found in New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco, St. Louis, Washington, Baltimore, Scranton, and several other cities.

#### HAVE HAD GREAT MEN

They have never lacked for great educational experts, whether as teachers or administrators, not to speak of the compilers of

their school texts, the writers of religious and devotional works for Catholic youth and the organizers of the far-reaching post-school works that now hold together so well our Catholic youth as it struggles upward toward favorable levels in the modern world, despite a hostile atmosphere and an influential spirit of irreligion. I refer to the alumni associations, social clubs, spiritual retreats and other numerous ways of tiding their graduates over the perilous years of their entry into self-responsibility.

#### FRANCE WAS UNGRATEFUL

When, early in the twentieth century French secularism reached its acme, and renewed, apart from the shedding of blood, the hostilities and injustices of the Revolution, the Brothers of the Christian Schools headed again the proscription lists. Despite their splendid services to their native land, exemplified in the magnificent educational programs of the venerable Frère Philippe, the honor of French religious schools and acknowledged publicly as such by adversaries of Christian education like Buisson and Compayré, the truly glorious educational works of the French Brothers were halted by the Law of Separation in July, 1900.

#### THEIR WORK DESTROYED

Two thousand schools, ten thousand Brothers and a half million pupils in all French domains fell as victims to the irreligious and materialistic spirit that then dominated the people of that fair land. France tore open, as it were, its own entrails, but on the eve of the Great War it called again, in its despair, on that religious devotion and generosity which it had so cruelly and so wantonly doomed to die on the soil that it had so often honored and enriched.

But how could we end any discourse, however brief, on the Brothers of the Christian Schools, this peculiarly French creation, without saluting its deep and unfailing source, that Catholic France, from whose loins for more than two centuries they sprang in tens of thousands,—sons of Paris shopkeepers, of Breton fishermen, of Normandy peasants and rich bourgeois of Lyons, Marseilles and Bordeaux, many of the ancient regime itself, great nobles whose strains of blood ran from the Crusaders.



## DEBT WE OWE FRANCE

Our debt to Catholic France is almost incalculable. Its Vincent of Paul and his Sisters of Charity, with all the holy word implies; its missionary armies of three centuries with their output of treasure, of tears and sweat, of sacrifice untold, the noble creations of the Propagation of the Faith and the Holy Childhood; of the Oblate Fathers and the White Fathers, not to speak of the great religious orders always in the field; of the saintly ascetic writers in whose books we yet live spiritually; of the religious orators like Lacordaire and Monsabré, and many others no less influential; of great educational brotherhoods like the Xaverian Brothers and the Brothers of Ploermel, founded by the saintly Jean de Lamennais, brother of the unhappy apostate; of the wonderful French Saints, Blessed Margaret Mary, the Little Flower, the Jesuit Martyrs of North America, Blessed Catherine Labouré and Blessed Bernadette; of those great French devotions that have so profoundly affected all Catholic life in recent times,—Our Lady of Lourdes, Our Lady of the Miraculous Medal and others; our Catholic belles-lettres, largely drawn from French sources by the way of translation, adaptation, imitation; our Catholic architecture; our religious arts, major and minor, yet influenced as of old by the men of genius who built Mont Saint Michel, illuminated countless missals and breviaries, and filled their churches with stained glass and statuary that are the despair of our little days; of Catholic laymen like Châteaubriand, Montalembert, De Falloux, De Meaux, the Féron-Vrain brothers, Léon Harmel, Ozanam, Chesnelong, and not a few others.

Despite revolution and infidelity, materialism and secularism, the Catholic world's debt to the French clergy and people is beyond any human repayment, and calls for an eternal gratitude and an eternal sympathy with them amid the trials they are called to bear and the problems they must solve. Certainly, all Christian mankind is deeply and happily indebted to the Church of France for the Institute of the Christian Brothers. May their new college, the latest jewel in the Catholic University's crown of religious houses of study, take deep root and prosper greatly in this land of religious freedom and growth!

## SOME THOUGHTS ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE

In current discussions of the high school curriculum, there is hardly a subject that receives more frequent and more serious attention than the English course. The reason is not far to seek. From a very lowly position in the study plan it has risen to an undisputed place of prominence as the core of the high school curriculum. Once neglected, if not despised, as of little educational value, it is now esteemed and lauded as the open sesame of all culture, whether of the mind or of the heart. It is the one constant among some 250 variables on the study programs of our secondary schools—the *pièce de résistance* of all educational menus prepared to meet the highly diversified needs and fastidious tastes of the present academic generation. Since English is everybody's subject, it is everybody's concern. Everybody has opinions, more or less definite and pronounced, on the merits of English as a high school course and on the methods of teaching it; and few there are that can resist the temptation to set forth their views in type for the benefit of the much harassed teacher of English composition or literature. It is only natural that English as a subject of universal study and interest should call forth an ever-increasing volume of criticism. Much of this criticism is well meant, no doubt, but uninspired and unintelligent; much of it, too, may be dismissed as purely destructive if not palpably unjust. It is only at rare intervals that one has the good fortune to come upon a critical study of the topic that is honest, competent, sympathetic, stimulating, and constructive. Such a study is a volume of essays, entitled *The Teaching of Literature*, from the pens of Charles Carpenter Fries, James Holly Hanford, and Harrison Ross Steeves.<sup>1</sup>

This work is not a mere congeries of unrelated personal opinions and isolated suggestions, but a well-ordered and balanced presentation of the whole subject of teaching English literature in our junior and senior high schools. Though the authors disclaim any intention of bringing their several discussions into minute consistency, their common point of view and singleness of purpose are everywhere in evidence throughout the whole series of the nine essays or chapters that make up the book. That they have succeeded so well in welding into one organic whole

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<sup>1</sup>New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1926.

their individual contributions, is in itself no mean achievement; and it detracts nothing from the merit of the achievement to say that the authors proceed *haud passibus aequis*. If the essays are of unequal value, it is owing perhaps not so much to any inequality of workmanship on the part of the authors as to the diversity of their topics. What the discussions lack in originality of thought and novelty of treatment, they make up in practicalness of purpose and concreteness of suggestion. In accordance with modern educational tendencies to bring all school activities into closer relation to human life, the authors desire to humanize and vitalize the teaching of English literature by substituting for "the haphazard reading of masterpieces, old and new, which has largely obtained in secondary education hitherto," a more coherent and progressive literature course—"a course grounded in the view that education must bear directly upon life and that the function of literature for human life can best be conceived in accord with the purposes that have dominated the producers of literature." In other words, the primary aim of the literature course, according to their conception, is to give the student, not an expansion of the mind, but "an expansion of the experience of life" by aiding him through the study of literary masterpieces to relive the experiences of others. So much for the general character of the volume in hand. Now for its contents.

In the first or introductory essay, Mr. Hanford urges on the teacher of English literature the need of regarding his subject not from a utilitarian but from a cultural point of view, as the most liberalizing of all disciplines, and of making it his chief concern to provide for the students opportunities of literary experience for the purpose of aiding their cultural development. The teacher's preparation for this task, according to the author, should consist not in endeavoring to meet academic requirements but in enriching his cultural life in and out of his special field. He must be a man of ideas and ideals. He must live for higher things than the gaining of a livelihood if he wishes to impart culture to his students.

While one may willingly admit the efficacy of the agencies mentioned by the author—books, lectures, art galleries, the theater, music, travel, social intercourse, hobbies and occupations—"as a means of keeping alive at the top," one may still seriously question their power of imparting culture. The pros-

pective teacher of English literature may, indeed, derive some comfort and inspiration from the suggestion to lay in a plentiful supply of that elusive thing called "culture" in the manner described, before going up "like Jonah to Nineveh, where there are 'ten thousand who know not their right hands from their left—and also much cattle.'" But he would benefit a great deal more by a clear definition of the word "culture." Is culture, after all, something to be picked up in the haphazard fashion indicated by the author; or is it not rather the purposed result of that long and painful training commonly called a liberal education? And for a definition of this term we can do no better than consult one of the greatest beneficiaries and exponents of liberal education—Cardinal Newman.

"It is," he says, "the education which gives man a clear, conscious view of his own opinions and judgments, a truth in developing them, an eloquence in expressing them, and a force in urging them. It teaches him to see things as they are, to go right to the point, to disentangle a skein of thought, to detect what is sophistical, and to discard what is irrelevant. It prepares him to fill any post with credit, and to master any subject with facility. It shows him how to accommodate himself to others, how to throw himself into their state of mind, how to bring before them his own, how to influence them, how to come to an understanding with them, how to bear with them. He is at home in any society, he has common ground with every class; he knows when to speak and when to be silent; he is able to converse, he is able to listen; he can ask a question pertinently, and gain a lesson seasonably, when he has nothing to impart himself; he is ever ready, yet never in the way; he is a pleasant companion, and a comrade you can depend upon; he knows when to be serious and when to trifle, and he has a sure tact which enables him to trifle with gracefulness and to be serious with effect. He has the repose of a mind which lives in itself, while it lives in the world, and which has resources for its happiness at home when it cannot go abroad. He has a gift which serves him in public, and supports him in retirement, without which good fortune is but vulgar, and with which failure and disappointment have a charm."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>"Idea of a University." New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1929. Pp. 177-8.

Who will deny that a teacher of English literature thus liberally educated is not only truly cultured but admirably equipped to impart culture to others through the medium of "the most liberalizing of the disciplines?"

The second chapter of the volume under review is the work of Mr. Fries. It gives a historical survey of English as a secondary school subject. The author shows how the middle schools of a century ago—the grammar school and the academy—were dominated in their curriculum and their methods by the higher schools; how, after English had slowly gained a place on the study programs of these schools, it received slight attention because of the over-emphasis on the humanistic and disciplinary values of the classical languages; how even the modern public high school, which as the school for the masses was from the beginning more independent of the college, was and still is influenced in the teaching of English literature by two factors prevalent in the college; namely, the entrance examinations and the grammatical-rhetorical study of the ancient classics. The author advocates modernizing the methods of teaching English literature by adapting them to high school pupils and purposes.

This historical survey covers familiar ground; and one may question the need of its introduction to enable the reader to "understand the genetic elements which are compounded in the present traditions and tendencies" of the English literature course.

In the third chapter, the same author undertakes a study of the objectives of literature teaching. The present conflict of opinions on this subject among educators he ascribes to the divergent educational principles of earlier days; and he attempts to secure unity of aim by putting forward the theory that, like every other school subject, English literature, to justify its place in the curriculum, must make some contribution to human life. In the light of this theory, the author contends that the primary aim of the literature teacher should be, not to teach the history of English literature, nor to give literary information, nor to secure esthetic enjoyment, nor to impart a taste and love for good literature, nor to inculcate ethical principles, but to provide opportunities of rich and varied literary experience for the purpose of expanding the student's experience of human life by enabling him to relive the thoughts and feelings of the authors.

Here the critical reader may well pause to inquire in the first



place how far this objective is attainable by the high school student. Is his mental development sufficiently advanced to permit him to "psycho-analyze" the classics for the purpose of identifying himself with their inner life? In the second place, one may be pardoned for asking whether such an aim is sufficiently high and worthy. A national literature is, to use a phrase of Cardinal Newman's, the voice of the natural man. It is rather the voice of man corrupted by original sin; and the old Adam smells rank even in the greatest masters of human thought. Granted that this corruption is in most of the English classics only incidental, it is part of our literature as it was part of their lives. Merely reliving their lives as mirrored in their literary productions cannot be regarded as the highest achievement of the student of literature. It is to be feared that, generally speaking, the student's literary experience would have to be subjected to some such catharsis as Aristotle required of the Greek tragedies. Finally, it may not be amiss to raise the question of the true function of literature as an art. Is it the presentation of human experience or of the beautiful? Certainly, if literature is conceived as a fine art, then its purpose is to present the beautiful; and the chief function of the literature teacher is to help the student enlarge not his human experience but his capacity for appreciating and enjoying the beautiful.

Having set forth the primary objective in the teaching of English literature, Mr. Fries next enters into a discussion of the principles that should govern such teaching. In order to provide rich and varied experience the teacher must select the proper material and adapt it to the capacity of the students. This adaptation consists in deciding on one aspect of the experience presented by the writer. Such aspects are the story interest, the character study, the conduct problem, the social and historical background, etc. Next, the teacher must clearly define for himself the nature of the particular experience to be gained, its exact measure and special purpose. Thirdly, the teacher must correlate the literary experience to the actual experience of the pupils; and where this is lacking, he must bring to their attention whatever is necessary for vivid realization on their part.

It need hardly be said that the method of approach here outlined is pedagogically sound and well designed to attain the objective set forth by the author as the primary aim of the litera-

ture teacher. Certainly, the more purposeful his teaching the more hopeful he may be of success. If the literature course in the past has been so meager of results, may it not be owing to the fact that teachers have tried to present every classic studied from every possible aspect and thus lost themselves and their pupils in a maze of literary and critical and linguistic and stylistic enucleations?

The same author in Chapter V discusses certain general principles for the organization of the literature course. While he seems not to favor a strict mechanical separation between literary experience on the one hand and composition work and utilitarian reading on the other, he still warns against a scrambling of objectives in these phases of English teaching. Three things he regards as essential in outlining the literature course: variety of the literary experience to be gained by the students, community of interests and past experiences on their part, and sequence or adaptation of literary materials in accordance with the degree of their maturity. The history of English literature, if taught at all, should be treated not as a study of literary biographies and movements and types but as an inquiry into the social and economic and religious forces entering into an author's literary development.

There is no denying that such a plan has much to commend it. For one thing, it has the merit of definiteness; and for another, it eliminates or at least reduces to its proper proportions much that hitherto has bulked too large in the study of the classics.

More or less in conformity with these general principles, Mr. Hanford in Chapter VI attempts to outline an ideal literature survey course. He defines it as "the ordered reading of a number, not necessarily large, of works of older literature with an emphasis on backgrounds and on the elements of a developing human and racial experience." In selecting materials for such a course, the teacher should distinguish between works requiring the historical approach and works demanding the contemporary approach. The former kind should be interpreted for and by the student in the light of modern conditions with a view to more vivid imaginative participation in the life of other times. This work of correlation should be divided between the teacher of history and the teacher of literature, and should be conducted systematically, if incidentally; or, as the author puts it, "in the

form of odds and ends, and solely to add interest or illumination to the reading."

With these principles in mind, the author next traces in broad outline what he conceives to be an ideal survey course. To summarize his observations, the study of Anglo-Saxon literature should be confined to a few selections picturing the life of the times; while the early Christian literature, except for a few characteristic passages, may be passed over. The Norman period may best be studied from modern historical novels with a Norman background. Chaucer deserves to be studied for his medieval as well as universal human types. The ballads and the religious dramas of the following period, as embodying the chivalric and religious ideals of the Middle Ages, should not be wholly neglected. The approach to the Elizabethan age should be through modern fiction and biography. The historical and linguistic study of Shakespeare should not be overdone. The best approach to Milton is the study of his life. The reading of his minor poems and parts of *Paradise Lost* is sufficient. The social and personal rather than the historical emphasis is suggested for the Classicist poets and prose-writers, while in the Romanticists the return to nature is singled out for consideration. For the study of the Victorian writers the contemporary approach, with limited attention to social, political, and economic changes, is the only valid one. The same holds for American literature, which, in addition, should be treated as a self-realization of a distinct branch of the English-speaking race.

A course such as outlined, while not exactly untried, is still more or less uncharted and likely enough to perturb the inexperienced teacher who may be inclined to make a fetish of his textbook with its insistence on unimportant data for the sake of logical sequence and historical completeness. In the hands of a thoroughly competent teacher, however, such a program should present no insurmountable obstacles and should do much to vitalize a study which perhaps more than any other high school subject has suffered from traditionalism. If it did nothing else than eliminate the current "histories" of English literature or at least relegate them to the reference libraries, the program suggested would be worth the trial.

Mr. Steeves next discusses the question of the study of con-

temporary authors. He begins by counseling caution in introducing into the school the literature of the day, because it lacks a body of available criticism such as serves the teacher in good stead as a digestive and a perspective of the older literature, and because what criticism exists is ephemeral and unreliable. Yet he does not hesitate to set forth "the most cogent reasons for seizing the advantages that a study of our literature plainly offers"; namely, immediacy of interest, reality of outlook on life, facility of approach, and intimacy of contact with present-day social tendencies. While he warns specifically against authors who are needlessly frank in matters of sex, he contends that no representative modern writer should be tabooed merely on the score of modernity.

It may be admitted that the reading of the moderns has certain advantages over the study of the ancients. It still remains a moot question, however, whether the productions of contemporary writers should find a place in the English literature course. Perhaps the advantages enumerated are, after all, more apparent than real. Granted that the modern authors are of more immediate interest or have a stronger appeal for the student, is it not the duty of the teacher to detach his pupils from the very things they are most interested in; namely, the trivial, the ephemeral, the commonplace, the superficial, and to attune their ears to the music of bygone days? It is true, perhaps, that contemporary literature is more closely related to modern life. But what is there in modern life so precious and important that all things educational must be related to it? If the word "life" is merely taken as a synonym for a living or the gaining of a livelihood, English literature, whether old or new, has little to contribute to it. But if it means the life of the spirit, the growth of man's higher faculties, and the cultivation of his finer sensibilities, the study of the older classics will be found to be indispensable as well as adequate to the purpose. Modern authors may be easier of approach, but that is hardly a reason why they should be substituted for the classics. Besides, in a literature so rich as the English there is certainly no dearth of material suited to every stage of mental development. If our high school pupils cannot be interested in the older authors because of comparatively slight linguistic and other difficulties, our wonderful literary heritage must forever remain for them a buried

treasure and a closed book with seven seals. As for the advisability of acquainting adolescents, through the medium of the literature course, with the social problems and theories and tendencies discussed by modern writers, the author himself seems to have his misgivings, for he counsels "us to decide wisely how much of this unprecedentedly broad discussion is assimilable and profitable for our students, and how much of it should be left for further maturity and ripened interests."

But granted for the sake of argument that for high school study modern writers have decided advantages over older authors, who is there to make a judicious selection from the thousands of volumes issuing from our presses every day? For mass production has invaded also the field of literature. As the author rightly observes, contemporary critical opinion can hardly be taken for a safe guide, because all too often it is merely an echo of the vaporings of the prophets and high priests of modern thought. Is the literature teacher then to turn for guidance to the lists of best-sellers or book-of-the-month-club selections—lists prepared perhaps by some third assistant secretary of an enterprising bookseller? Surely, there is little time in the classroom for the study of anything but literary masterpieces; and masterpieces nowadays are *rari nantes in gurgite vasto*.

Chapter VIII, also contributed by Mr. Steeves, is devoted to a discussion of the study of literary types. The author warns against dogmatism in the teaching of types, since they are not organisms but devices which constantly tend to overlap. For the sake of economy of time, the study of the nature and the function of types should be at first "retrospective"; i.e., based on the former reading of the pupils, which for most will be confined to imaginative and narrative literature. The higher or intellectual types may be best taught through the laboratory and project method. The psychological rather than the logical order is to be followed in the treatment of literary forms.

The author undoubtedly does well to insist on the necessity of the study of the scope and the efficacy of particular types as essential to appreciative reading even for the non-technical student of English. It would seem unwise, however, to reserve the treatment of these forms till the very last year of the high school course. The habit of appreciative reading should be formed much earlier.



In the concluding chapter of the book Mr. Steeves considers the relation between the high school and the college course in English. In view of the aim of the earlier schools, which was the formation of the "cultivated gentleman," the author recognizes as legitimate their practice of applying to the reading of the English classics the methods long sanctioned for the study of the ancient writers. He calls attention, however, to the far-reaching changes introduced into secondary and college English courses by the constant interaction of the aristocratic and the democratic ideal in American education. While on the one hand the old college entrance examinations with their restricted list of readings neither tested the student's maturity nor rounded out his knowledge of English, the high school course on the other hand, with its elementary and fragmentary study of the prescribed authors, was far from offering an adequate preparation for effective college work in English. To be truly preparatory, the high school course must in some way lay the foundation for such work and at the same time consider the special needs of the student. To this end, the secondary English course should form good reading habits in the student with due regard to his particular interests; it should make him thoughtful; it should give him an adequate view of literature as a whole without burdening him with historical and other technical information; it should familiarize him with approved critical views and scholarly methods. This plan, Mr. Steeves asserts, is at once preparatory and finishing and has the approval of a growing number of colleges. It calls for the open reading list, to be adapted, of course, to local and individual needs.

Incidentally, one may ask why in the author's enumeration of the aims of the college preparatory course in English no mention is made of the one objective that was stressed as of prime importance in the earlier chapters of the book. Has the expansion of the student's life experience through literary experience no disciplinary virtue? If so, one may well doubt its practical and cultural values. Be that as it may, the author is to be commended for his not unsuccessful attempt to articulate the high school and the college courses of English. In this country we are still far removed from the ideal of the *Einheitschule* which regards as one organic whole all the parts of the German educational system. Whether that ideal is attainable in this country

is a question. The heterogeneous elements now gathered in our public high schools seems to preclude such a contingency. Besides, if not more than 15 per cent of all high school graduates enter college, curriculum-makers may well ask: Why a college preparatory course? Yet some sort of preparatory training ought in justice to be given to such as intend to advance to higher institutions. The question then presents itself: Wherein consists the best preparation for college? As long as the college places more emphasis on information than on formation in its candidates for academic honors, so long will the high school stress subject-matter to the prejudice of pupil-training; so long will it aim to impart an extensive rather than an intensive knowledge of its branches; so long will the secondary English course remain what it now is—a *rudis indigestaque moles*, a thing without shape or design or organization or vitality or utility, the despair alike of teacher and pupil.

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## ADMINISTRATIVE PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Our present philosophy of education considers the school as existing for the child and not the child for the school. The unprecedented enrollment in our high schools today, however, has brought with it a tendency towards modern methods of mass production in dealing with the high school body. As long as these methods can produce the efficiency of the whole school without jeopardizing the individual child's welfare, they are praiseworthy from the standpoint of economy. But if for facility of operation mass methods are employed in any school to the detriment of the pupils therein, surely that school defeats the very aim of its existence. It might be said, then, that a school is successful to the extent that it provides for the advancement of its individual pupils, and, conversely, that it is unsuccessful to the extent that it does not so provide—even though it may appear to be highly efficient from the standpoint of management.

Granted that the school exists for the child, what are the particular outcomes or changes which an educational system is supposed to produce in the pupils it undertakes to educate? Students of education have given this question much consideration, and are now quite commonly agreed that since the American child lives and will continue to live in a democratic society, he should be trained to function in that type of social organization to the utmost of his capacity and "in such ways as his personal qualifications and status permit."<sup>1</sup> Obviously, society will develop through him and he by means of society only to the extent that his training and ability allow him to participate in the social and economic life around him. Now, besides the acquisition of necessary information, the automatization of fundamental skills, and the development of his special aptitudes, the pupil needs habits of self-reliance, initiative, and self-control to be successful in a democracy. It, therefore, devolves upon the school to make it possible for the child to realize these attainments, so necessary for efficient citizenship in a democracy.

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<sup>1</sup>Foster, H. H. "High School Administration," p. 213.

## THE PROBLEM

In complying with this demand on modern education, secondary as well as elementary school administrators are faced with astonishing facts established by scientific data concerning the enormous variation in the individual traits of pupils. Even in the somewhat selected group of the high school student-personnel, individuals vary to a remarkable degree in their ability to profit by the school's program of training. Native intellectual capacity, interests, talents, ambitions, and rates of progress all are so divergent in the different pupils that each child is as a little world in himself, capable of developing only in certain ways and at his own rate. Obviously the same type and technique of training is not suited to all pupils.

On the other hand, high school students have many needs and traits in common. They are living in the same society, have many similar duties and functions, and will consequently need to think and act alike in many situations.

These two facts concerning the high school population suggest the educational policy for pupil training—a policy that consistently takes cognizance of the needs for integration and differentiation in all the phases of school activity. In the light of these truths, it obviously becomes the duty of heads of schools to see that the school organization is of such a nature as to provide for these all-important needs of pupils. The classroom teacher, it is true, is the most important single factor in pupil-training; but unless school authorities have vision enough to provide the proper environment, she cannot carry out effectively her plans for producing desired results.

What, then, an administrator might ask, is the kind of school organization that best insures obtaining the end sought—namely, the training of the child to cope successfully with his environment? Theorizing on the necessity for differentiated proceedings and practically making arrangements for them are two different things. And since individual differences are so many and so varied, it is impossible to provide for them all. We can hope only to approximate the goal. All educators are agreed, however, upon one thing—namely, that the old recitation system as typically carried on in the past does not make proper provision for the outcomes now desired in high school education. In general, the criticisms of the recitation system are:

1. It demands too much *listening* and not enough *doing*.
2. The listening is not always attentive, and often what is said is not worth hearing.
3. Time spent in reciting could often be more profitably employed in other things.
4. In the typical forty-minute period how much attention does each of a class of thirty get?
5. Many failures result from the inability of slower pupils to keep the class pace.
6. Hence, slower pupils are often discouraged, whereas the brighter tend to develop superiority complexes.
7. Group conferences meeting occasionally can accomplish as much as the regular class period.

These faults of the old recitation system having once been pointed out, educators have been seeking diligently for some substitute which will better promote the aims of secondary education. Obviously, the point of departure in this search for new procedures is the need of the individual child. Here all the accumulated scientific facts relative to individual differences must point the way and be determining factors.

#### PRESENT SOLUTIONS

Many schemes have been suggested and tried, some have been successful in obtaining desirable outcomes, but none as yet have been anything like universally adopted. It is because of the obvious implications growing out of scientific findings in regard to individual differences and needs of adolescents that the junior high school has sprung up all over our land. "The core of the junior high school idea is providing for individual differences."<sup>2</sup> But junior high schools as well as other secondary schools vary in their methods of obtaining this desired goal.

When one examines the educational field to learn what concrete attempts are being made to provide for individual differences, one is confronted with a bewildering variety of plans and procedures, the very enumeration of which would consume considerable space. These plans are all more or less suitable for high schools but vary in the degree to which they answer needs in different places. What is successful in large schools is not always so in small, and *vice versa*.

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<sup>2</sup>Dewey, E., "The Dalton Laboratory Plan."



All of the plans now in operation to attain the new aims in education can, in general, be reduced to three main administrative forms: (1) the ordinary class period, where a heterogeneous, unselected group is stimulated and directed in problem-solving by a master-director; (2) the ordinary class period, in which a group selected on the basis of ability proceeds with a uniform speed and load, or with a different speed but a uniform load, or with a uniform speed but different load; and (3) the "laboratory" plan, offering more or less freedom for the pupil to advance at his own rate, budget his own time, and otherwise be free to act. Within each of these three divisions practices vary considerably, so that no one of them represents an entirely distinct "method." Which of these procedures, if any, is the best, and why? An attempt will now be made to answer this question.

#### AN EVALUATION

By the first-mentioned group is meant, not the typical class period in which all are supposed to do the same amount of work in the same amount of time, but a class conducted somewhat after the manner described by Miller in his book, *Directing Study*. Miller thinks it best to have a heterogeneous group, all assigned the same task, or problem, but with each one working at it according to his capacity and with no one being held for any specific amount, provided he does his best. This type of procedure would be suitable for both large and small schools and would be easy to administer, because it requires no provision for ability grouping and admits of a definite class schedule. Moreover, it escapes the criticism commonly launched against ability grouping as being "undemocratic and fatalistic." If conducted as Miller describes, such a class would seem to be stimulating to both teacher and pupils and would surely give each child a "square deal," by not demanding too much from him. Miller thinks, too, that the slower pupils would be benefited by the brighter, who could assist the teacher in helping the laggards; and that the slower need not develop self-depreciation by accepting such help in one class, because no doubt they in turn would be the shining orbs in some other class more suited to their ability. This confident hope of Miller, however, seems unwarranted in many cases. Those who are dull in one academic

subject are very often dull in others, and consequently cannot become leaders in any heterogeneous class. All the discouraging features of the old recitation system would too frequently in the case of the slow child be perpetuated by such a system. Moreover, it seems that its success depends upon such a high degree of skill in the teacher that it would be hazardous to attempt it in many cases. The picture he presents of the teacher as expert director of activities is admirable indeed and worthy of emulation by any instructor of youth; but how many teachers could successfully manage so many different stages of progress all in one short class period unless she had mimeographed assignments to keep all on the same track? The lazy pupil would be tempted to sit back and let his classmates do the work unless adequate and frequent check-ups were provided. The challenging atmosphere of the class-problem scheme as advocated by Miller might stimulate him for a time, but as long as he could profit by the contributions of his fellows he would be tempted to rest on his oars. Then, too, the task of checking-up on the "indefinite assignments" would seem a difficult one—and check-ups are necessary, human nature being what it is. True, the indefinite assignment allows the energetic and original pupils to give their talent fuller play than often does a definite assignment; but it is difficult to see how a teacher can maintain a class as a whole up to its highest point of endeavor under such an indefinite procedure.

Miller's plan of having a group of unselected pupils in one class might reasonably be practical for large classes as well as for small, if the class period were lengthened, as he suggests, to about seventy minutes, and if the main features of supervised study were used. Mimeographed assignments designating minimum essentials and providing for extra activity for the faster pupils would simplify considerably the teacher's problem and be less confusing to the child by providing a definite guide. Conceivably, quite a heterogeneous group could thus be handled if proper check-ups were provided and if the classroom were equipped with reference books, maps, and whatever else is necessary to assure proper study conditions. Then group instruction could be had whenever necessary. Duller pupils need not be discouraged by their slow progress because the position of the brighter would not be so painfully evident to them

as when all were working at the same part of an assignment in open class work. By giving reports, the brighter pupils could share the benefits of their extra study with the entire class. This form of organization, too, allows of comparatively easy administrative manipulation, gives the teacher the advantage of a definite time with definite pupils, and permits the child to advance at his own rate as well as to participate in any group activity the class may have. True, it does not give him the freedom, initiative, and responsibility such as a plan whereby he could budget his own time would allow. But, in actual life, how many of us are not bound in our activity more or less by bells and schedules not of our own arranging? Besides, were the assignments made as they should be they would provide the pupil with opportunity for initiative—and it is one of the duties of the administration to see that assignments are so made.

Probably the most widely used form of provision for individual differences is the procedure mentioned second above—that of homogeneous grouping on the basis of ability. Aside from its intrinsic merits, this form owes some of its popularity, doubtless, to the comparative ease with which it can be administered in the larger schools where classes are divided into sections. True, it is not so simple an administrative device as that just described, but it is at least a much less radical departure from the regular class routine than the strictly individual plans, such as the Dalton. In very small high schools where very few if any classes can be divided, ability grouping must be done within the single class, if done at all. In this case, the assignments must vary to fit each group just as if the teacher were dealing with different classes instead of with one class. Naturally, the teacher's work will be more complicated in this case than if she were dealing with a more homogeneous group, but still it would not be so difficult as in the case where all the pupils of her class have different goals and are proceeding independently of every other member of the class. In the larger schools where pupils are grouped in ability sections, two sections of the same class might be placed in the same period so that changes from one section to another of the same class could be made without interfering with the schedule. These changes should be at all times possible when it is found that a child has been wrongly placed.

Ability grouping, despite opposition to it, seems a better method than having opportunity classes supplementary to the regular class, unless the same teacher can conduct both. Different teachers handle subjects differently; hence, a slow child is apt to become confused when two teachers guide him in the same subject. In larger schools it would seem uneconomical to provide opportunity classes when the need for such might be obviated by the varied methods and procedures possible in homogeneous grouping. In the smaller schools opportunity classes might answer a very distinct need where all the pupils of a given class, being undifferentiated, could not get the individual attention needed.

One criticism of ability grouping that might be offered is that though one has a group of approximately the same ability, much more individual instruction ought to be given than can be in the time allotted to the class. The individual child still, possibly, does not get that special attention he needs for fullest development. He is more or less bound by the group to which he is assigned. Whether or not the disadvantage to the child is slight in comparison to the general advantage in ease of administration which ability grouping offers, is a question.

Again, ability grouping within a single class, with varying assignments, seems to put an enormous burden on the teacher, especially in small schools where she must teach several different subjects and make three different kinds of assignments for each. And the checking-up would also be a severe strain, since every examination would require provisions for three different standards of attainment. Unless detailed assignments were multigraphed for each group, one class period seems insufficiently long for properly motivating three different groups for further study and helping each group with its special difficulties. Once the assignments were multigraphed, however, much of the difficulty would be obviated.

The most radical departure from the traditional class period is the procedure mentioned third above—that of purely individual instruction, with only an occasional group-meeting called a “conference.” Though there are several schemes for individual instructions of this type, the one most widely known and used in high schools is the Dalton Plan. As complete descriptions of this plan are readily available, the discussion here will be concerned only with considerations, pro and con.

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A study of the Dalton Plan reveals that the procedure advocated is conducive in a high degree to growth in the desirable qualities of initiative, responsibility, and self-control, while at the same time it provides for group activity in class conferences, gymnasium, assembly, etc. The aim of the Dalton Plan, as stated by Lynch,<sup>3</sup> is to create the habit of study and of independent expression, which eventually reveal the child's will and individuality. The fact that the pupil is free to budget his own time—that is, that he is allowed to determine what and when he shall study—and that he initiates the questions from his own needs makes him more self-reliant and causes the urge to study to come from within rather than from the teacher.

Some advantages found for the individual over the class method are:

1. Individual and personal check-ups are possible at every point of learning. The class period lacks time for proper checking—at least, frequently.
2. Individual testing can be much more diagnostic than class testing.
3. Attention is more assured.
4. Education depends upon the energy put forth by the learner and does not permit of the "pouring in" process of the recitation system.
5. The pupil feels that the progress is his own job, not the teacher's.
6. The individual method makes time the variable rather than the quality or amount. Class methods make time the constant, regardless of pupils' ability to learn.
7. The child realizes that unless he works every day he does not succeed, because one assignment must be furnished before another can be begun.
8. The child gets his own education, which process is in accord with life.

Some actual results recorded by those who have tried the Dalton Plan are:

1. Most pupils study harder and learn more.
2. They acquire ability to plan and execute work efficiently.
3. They have increased interest in their growth (aided by graph cards and wall charts).

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<sup>3</sup>Lynch, A. J., "Individual Work and the Dalton Plan."



4. They know how far they must go because of the extended assignment.

5. Teachers plan work more carefully and thus make better assignments.

6. Work is greatly motivated because it is so definite and because the purpose can be kept in view.

7. It makes supervision easier, by the increased facility in studying teachers' assignments and results.

8. Teachers of various departments can get a bird's-eye-view of each other's work, because monthly assignments are posted. Coordination is then facilitated.

9. Assignments may be sent to absentees.

10. Helps review and memory because all material is kept in a note book.

11. Substitute teachers are much less of a problem.

12. Teachers do not shrink so from observation in the laboratory subject-rooms.

13. Compels better pedagogy, because the teacher *must make* her assignments from the child's viewpoint.

14. Greater use of the library results.

15. Discipline problems are lessened.

16. Purposeful activity in the study hall produces self-imposed quiet.

17. No repetition of subjects is necessary.

18. No forward jumps are permitted.

19. The bright pupils' courses are enriched or the pupils are promoted sooner.

20. Fewer failures result.

Some of the difficulties which have been experienced by those who have tried to organize their high schools on the Dalton Plan follow:

1. It is difficult to know just what proportion of time is needed for scheduled class conferences and what proportion is needed for individual work.

2. The question: What organization is best adapted to give the principle of freedom-in-responsibility greatest play? cannot be answered alike for all schools because each school differs in its equipment and personnel.

3. The making of the assignments is the most important and most difficult task of the administration, because the success or failure of the plan depends largely on the assignment.

4. The multigraphing of assignments is no small task.
5. The checking of each child individually requires very much of the teacher's time.
6. A satisfactory program that provides for both integration and differentiation is not easy to make.
7. Teachers do not always know when not to help the pupil.
8. Some pupils who must necessarily go slower in the individual method because they must do all of the work assigned, become disgruntled.
9. Pupils do not work to capacity each day; assignments must be large enough to keep everybody working every day but not so long that it is impossible for everybody to cover them. (Co-operative writing of assignments by all teachers of the subject helps the problem here.)

If somewhat strictly adhered to, the Dalton Plan provides for a great amount of time in which the teacher cannot be certain beforehand just who will come to her for help. Very likely she will have to repeat some instructions several times to different groups who might as well have been grouped together in the first place. The weekly conference probably cannot take care of all group needs. The New Britain laboratory plan provides for just this difficulty. Instead of groupings being left to chance or option during "free" time, every class meets each day for a definite time. Therefore, the teacher knows just when she is to have a certain group and can save much time and repetition by having all the members of a certain class available at a certain time. The classes may pursue individual work or group work when and as long as is desired. True, some amount of freedom—such as in budgeting his own time—is thus lost to the pupil, but he can develop initiative in other ways, as in working on unrequired problems or taking part in extra-classroom activities. After all, the ability to follow a fixed schedule and still to do one's work efficiently is often a requirement of life; and as long as the child is permitted to go his own pace, differences in individual capacity are cared for.

It was thought necessary to discuss these various provisions for individual differences somewhat in detail; because, as the heart of the whole educational problem lies in the class procedure, the administration must in consequence determine forms of organization and other administrative features from considerations of

what is best for the pupil as well as from considerations of expediency.

#### A SUGGESTED PROCEDURE

The problem of individual differences having been discussed and the main types of provisions now made for them having been commented upon, there remains to be considered a workable plan embodying the features toward which our considerations point. The following plan provides for a practical combination of what seem to be the valuable features of the various provisions now being made for individual differences. Possibly the features of the New Britain laboratory plan predominate. The justification for the procedures that will here be advocated is contained in the discussion and criticism of other plans given above.

*Suggested Organization.*—Let the classrooms of the school be fitted up as “laboratories” in the several subjects, if possible with tables and chairs instead of desks, and with the necessary equipment such as reference books, maps, charts, and so on.

Let the class periods be definitely scheduled and be at least sixty minutes in duration. The regular academic subjects counting as one unit toward graduation may be given four times a week, if desired, leaving the remaining period free for assembly, physical education, and other such activities. The possibility of a given student's leaving a class period with permission for further library work should be arranged for brighter pupils who finish assignments in one subject and wish more time for others. Also opportunity classes should be provided, if possible, for those who need more attention than the classroom teacher can provide in the class period.

In larger schools where there can be at least three or four sections of the same class, it would seem good to have homogeneous grouping on the basis of ability as determined by intelligence tests, achievement tests, teachers' estimates, and past marks. Ability grouping has so many advantages in the way of easy handling and better adjustment to pupil capacity that its disadvantages are surely outweighed. Provisions should be made so that transfers from section to section are easily accomplished when a pupil has been wrongly placed. This can be done by having as many sections of the same class as possible meet at the same time. In the small school, the smaller classes eliminate at least some of the objections to the necessarily heterogeneous group.

*Making Assignments.*—Let the teachers, in cooperation with the administration and with each other, decide upon the scope of the year's work in each subject. (In those cases where a syllabus is provided by some outside agency such as accrediting bodies, this step will be unnecessary.)

Next, let them divide the content of each subject into two approximately equal parts for the two terms. If the semester is eighteen weeks long, six-week periods make a convenient division. In this case make assignments to cover periods six weeks in length. Otherwise, make the assignments to suit any convenient division of the semester.

Then let teachers divide each assignment into units comprising approximately one day's work, with minimum and supplementary provisions for the slower and brighter students, respectively. Supplementary work should be greater in quantity than even the brightest can accomplish so that the range of all can be determined. Provision should be made, too, for original work. Frequent tests and other check-ups should be provided for. Since the assignment is all-important, it should be so made up as to furnish sufficient background and motivation, and should be very definite. Texts, reference books, pages, notebook work, and so on should all be carefully indicated. The subject-matter should all be arranged topically and followed by stimulating questions and problems for study. Standards for attainment should be indicated where possible (as one hundred per cent efficiency in a spelling list). A student must finish the minimum essentials of one assignment in a subject before receiving another in that subject, but need not have finished all of the assignments in all subjects. In other words, promotion is by subjects.

These assignments should be multigraphed so that each individual may keep his own assignments in a notebook cover to have for reference.

*Records.*—Progress should be indicated in three ways: by pupils' graph cards, kept and marked by the pupils; by teachers' graph cards, kept and marked by the teachers; and by wall charts indicating the progress of every member of a given class. By this means, the pupil, teacher, and administrator can know at any time how much progress is being made.

*The Class Period.*—The class period may be conducted in any way the teacher sees fit. Explanations, tests, discussions, may be given to the entire class or to separate groups, as seems best to

her. Sometimes the period may be consumed in supervised study, the teacher acting as expert guide; again it may be used for explanations of the assignment; or a combination of these two may occur in one period. Free access to books and other equipment and freedom in moving quietly about the room as needs require should be permitted. Thus only can proper working conditions exist.

*The Teacher.*—All of this implies that the teacher must be trained in directing study so that she may know when and how to give help to pupils.

#### GENERAL VALUES OF THE PLAN

1. This procedure could be carried out without any radical changes in the curriculum or external or internal organization of the school.

2. It provides ease of grading and promotion, as the members of the same class are held to the same minimum essentials, the time for mastering them being the variable.

3. Lock-step processes are obviated, because the pupil may progress at his own rate.

4. Where homogeneous grouping is used, economized group work is facilitated by the fact that the pupils will keep together more than in a heterogeneous class. Where ability grouping does not obtain, the likelihood of smaller classes helps somewhat the difficulty of managing a miscellaneous group.

5. Individual differences are provided for without sacrificing the benefits of group activity.

6. The economizing of the teacher's time, the definiteness of the schedule, and the stabilizing of the pupil by specific time and place requirements would in most cases, it is believed, outweigh the advantages gained to the child by perfect freedom in budgeting his own time.

#### CONCLUSION

Though no plan now in use to provide for individual differences is likely to suit every school without modification, in view of the fact that such provision is unquestionably needed, it is incumbent upon every school to do what lies in its power to give each child in its care the particular kind of training he needs.

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## GRADING AND GROUPING WORDS IN SPELLING<sup>1</sup>

The identification of the words to be taught in spelling leads to the problem of their arrangement by grades and within grades. The grading of words refers to their grade location, while grouping has reference to their position with relation to other words within a particular grade. The two processes are very much alike, since any advantage that is demonstrated in favor of the grouping of words will affect their grade location so as to utilize the grouping. At the same time, there may be incompatibility, as an endeavor to group certain words together may involve their introduction in grades when other considerations dictated a different grade placement. For convenience of discussion, however, the two aspects of the general problem may be discussed separately. Grading is a more fundamental procedure and the immediate sequel to the selection of words to be taught.

There is very little scientific evidence on the advantages of the different methods that may be used in grading words. Certain principles have been proposed, but their evaluation has received little attention. Even when these principles are accepted, their application often involves much freedom of choice, so that considerable disagreement is observed in the grades to which certain words are allocated. Words occurring in the sixth grade in one speller are placed in the second grade in another speller whole claim to scientific construction seems just as strong. After identifying the words that are common to ten spellers used in elementary schools, Selke found the amount of agreement in the placement of the 1,080 words (2; 78).<sup>2</sup> Only three words occurred in the same grades in all of the ten spellers. The differences in the grade placement of the other common words are given by Selke in Table 1.

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<sup>1</sup>This is the second of a series of articles on the teaching of spelling. The third will appear in the February issue of the *CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*.

<sup>2</sup>As in the other articles of this series, the references are given to "An Annotated Bibliography of Studies Relating to Spelling," by Sister M. Irmina, Sister M. Visitation, and Sister M. Gabriel, and to Supplement No. 1 of that Bibliography by T. G. Foran and Robt. T. Rock, Jr., *Educational Research Bulletins*, 3, No. 1, 1928, and 5, No. 1, 1930.

TABLE 1.—*Grade Placement of the 1,080 Words Common to the Ten Spellers Selke (2; 78)*

<i>Placement of words</i>	<i>Number of words</i>
One grade. ....	3
Two successive grades. ....	267
Three successive grades. ....	459
Four successive grades. ....	205
Five successive grades. ....	41
Six successive grades. ....	4
Total. ....	979
Two grades—not successive. ....	2
Three grades—not successive. ....	47
Four grades—not successive. ....	41
Five grades—not successive. ....	11
Total. ....	101
Grand total. ....	1,080

Two-thirds of the words common to all ten spellers are placed in two or three successive grades, but there is very little agreement in the location of the remaining third of the words. Furthermore, there is hardly likely to be much agreement in the grade placement of words that occur in some but not in all spellers.

It is possible to group the principles that have been proposed for the grading of words into a few general headings. These are: Degree of difficulty; frequency of adult usage; frequency of child usage as indicated by grade of highest frequency of usage in children's writing; grade of first usage; composite methods; and expert judgment. There are undoubtedly other methods used in grading words, but these are the main ones. The description of them varies, but they appear to be adequately described in the above list. There would be no problem if these several bases yielded the same results, but the differences in the results are clearly shown by Selke's findings on this point. There is even a certain amount of incompatibility between these methods, as will be clear from a consideration of them.

The first method of grading words is based on their difficulty and places words according to the percentages of correct spellings as these are obtained from dictating the words to elementary school pupils. Ashbaugh has made what is probably the most comprehensive study of the difficulty of words of common usage (1; 12). The words used included the three thousand

words of highest frequency according to Anderson's study of the words used in written correspondence (1; 4). In each grade the words spelled correctly the same number of times are listed together. Since this study includes the majority of words in the ordinary spelling course of study, a great deal of reliance has been placed on it, and several spellers have adopted its findings as the principal means of locating the words in the grades in which they belong. What percentage of correct spellings serves as the best indicator of grade location has never been agreed upon. A recent spelling syllabus (2; 110) advocates 75 per cent as the standard of spelling accuracy. Words are therefore placed in that grade in which 75 per cent of the pupils can spell them correctly. The word *ability* is spelled by the following percentages of pupils in the successive grades:

Grade .....	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Per cent .....	7	11	18	62	71	78	92

According to this method, *ability* would be placed in the sixth or seventh grade. This procedure has the obvious advantage of objectivity, since it is a simple though tedious matter to ascertain the difficulty of each word in those grades in which it is likely to be placed. There are several objections to this method which have subordinated it to other methods of grading words. One objection is that the difficulty of a word determined in this way reflects the present teaching of that subject only and not what the real difficulty of the word is. Words will therefore tend to remain in the grades in which they are now taught, regardless of any advantages that might accrue from a transfer to another grade. This method therefore determines what is to be from what is now under an organization of teaching which is supposed to be improved. Other objections will be considered in connection with the discussion of the other methods of grading words.

Frequency of adult usage has been proposed as a basis of grading words. The words used most frequently would be placed in the lower grades and in higher grades in the order of decreasing frequency. An examination of this principle was made in connection with the review of the content of the spelling vocabulary. This plan is but another aspect of making adult usage the norm for educational content and method. It assumes

in part that the most frequently used words are the easiest to learn and is therefore reducible to difficulty, but in this connection difficulty is based indirectly upon the writing of adults rather than of children. It may be objected that frequency of usage reflects the instruction that adults received in spelling when they were in the elementary school. Accordingly, past practice becomes the norm for the grading of words. It was shown in the previous article that there are many words that children should know how to spell that adults do not use. How are these words to be graded? This procedure is hardly defensible, and in practice it has been employed very seldom.

A third method of grading words is based on the frequency with which children use the words in their written work, principally compositions. Words would be placed in the grades in which the words occur most frequently. This method has the identical limitation of the preceding methods. It renders current practice with whatever defects may characterize such practice the standard in reforming the spelling curriculum. Of course, it cannot take into consideration the words which children should be able to spell before they leave the elementary school but which do not occur in children's writing with a degree of frequency that would entitle them to be graded in the same way as words of higher frequency. The studies that provide the data for this method are those of Smith (1; 229) and French (1; 70). This method assumes that use indicates need, but use indicates not only need but the effects of instruction, while not using a word does not prove that the word was not needed.

Frequency of use by children is regarded as an indication of interest and need. Current practices in education tend to favor the use of children's interests and experiences as important determinants of subject matter. This attitude is well summarized in the statement: "In times past, and too much in the present, school practice has imposed adult forms of thought, feeling, and behavior upon children. It must, indeed, be recognized that the best conceivable forms of adult behavior represent goals toward which the education of the child must proceed. But, much more vigorously than has been true in the past, it must be recognized that the steps necessary in moving towards these goals are dictated by the character of the child's interests, needs, capacities for learning, and experiences, as well as by the larger demands

of society."<sup>3</sup> In accordance with this principle, several recent spellers have used frequency of use by children as the main basis for the grading of words. Another speller adopted the criterion of interest, but, since there were no data that would serve the purpose, the authors substituted difficulty. In this connection recourse might be had to studies of the words used by children in their conversation. Oral usage is not synonymous with written usage, but the former would probably prove valuable in determining the latter, and particularly the development of interests which would aid in the selection of words and their grading. Studies of children's use of words in conversation have played only an insignificant part in formulating the spelling vocabulary and no part whatever in the grade placement of words.

It is easily possible to carry the principle of children's interests to extremes, and it is nearly always necessary to supplement content obtained by this method by material of a useful character in adult life but which does not occur in the experiences of children. Words which children do not use and which occur with high frequency in the writing of adults are sometimes referred to the eighth grade, where they will be learned near the time when they will be used. Children's usage is at best an indirect indication of children's interests. But no better method of ascertaining interests has yet been used in grading words.

The grade in which words are first used by an arbitrarily selected percentage of children has afforded a partial means of grading words. Usually this method is employed in combination with the method of highest frequency. By itself, it would mean that a few gifted children would be the dictators of the arrangement of subject-matter by grades.

Composite methods have been used in the construction of some spellers. Various arrangements of the criteria have been employed in obtaining the average grade in which the word should occur. A recent speller averaged the findings of two investigations of the grade of first usage of each word and the results of two studies of the frequency of usage. This combined "grade index" is based exclusively on children's use of the word and practices in full the theory of children's experiences as the

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<sup>3</sup>"The Foundations of Curriculum Making." Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Soc. for the Study of Educ., Part II, 1927, p. 12.



determinants of educational content. However, a rather large proportion of the words were not used by children at all, and these would necessarily have to be treated in a different fashion.

Expert opinion has been used in the construction of various spellers as the means of grading the words. It goes without saying that the degree of expertness varies considerably and that, more often than otherwise, expert opinion is synonymous with a guess.

Modifying any method is the desirability of placing the heaviest load in spelling on the intermediate grades. It is in these grades that the child's vocabulary makes its greatest increase. Regardless, therefore, of what principle is used in the grading of words, care must be exercised that the number of words assigned to any grade is consistent with the time allowed spelling in that grade and with the normal distribution of the subject throughout the grades. Practices vary widely, of course, and some spellers require as many as three hundred more words in a grade than do other texts.

It is difficult to state in objective terms the amount of agreement and disagreement that results from the foregoing principles of grading words. Breed states that grading by difficulty tends to place words somewhat higher in the grades than does grading by frequency of childhood usage (2; 12). He states also that grade of first usage is usually from one to two grades below the grade of most frequent usage.<sup>4</sup>

When these several principles of grading words agree there is no problem, but disagreements are by no means exceptional. The most serious conflict is between interest and difficulty. Words such as *ton*, *fee*, *mess*, *tax*, and many others are easily learned, but they do not conform to the principle of childhood usage. As far as difficulty is concerned, several of them if not all could be placed in the second grade, but a second grade child's interest in taxation is rather remote. On the other hand, *Thanksgiving*, *Christmas*, *wagon*, and many others pertain to children's interests and activities in the primary grades. Difficulty would place them in higher grades as the following percentages of correct spellings indicate (Ashbaugh 1; 12):

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<sup>4</sup>Breed, Frederick S., and French, William C.: "The Breed-French Speller." New York, Lyons and Carnahan, 1927. Page viii.

	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thanksgiving .....	14	36	58	73	79	90
Christmas .....	38	55	82	88	97	96
Wagon .....	20	51	80	90	99	97

More extreme examples could readily be presented, but the conflict between interest and need on the one hand and difficulty on the other does not require any elaboration. The tendency is strongly in favor of interest in most recent spellers. Children's interest in the meaning of a word undoubtedly decreases the difficulty that the word possesses, and the association of the word with many experiences compensates to a large degree for the inherent difficulty of the word.

In the grading of words it would appear that there are outstanding advantages to be derived from using a vocabulary that contains both the common words used by children and those used frequently by adults, basing the grading of the words on children's interests while taking into consideration the difficulty of the words. The difficulty of the words can also be used as a check on the constancy of the lessons in this regard. Frequency of usage in adult correspondence is entirely unsatisfactory as a means of grading words. The use of difficulty alone leads to arrangements that are equally unsatisfactory. The best bases are therefore to be sought in children's experiences with the meanings of the words. Expert opinion is either a guess or an excuse for not undertaking more appropriate procedures.

#### GROUPING WORDS

Presuming that the words have been allocated to certain grades on one or more of the previous bases, the next and intimately related problem is their grouping within each grade. There is as much diversity of practice in this regard as there is in grading the words. With the exception of a few points of relatively minor importance, objective evidence is scarce. A unique method of meeting the situation is to arrange the words alphabetically, as has been done in a recently published speller. The pupil therefore learns the words beginning with *a* early in the year but must defer his use of words beginning with *s* and *t* until later. It would have been just as well to group the words according to the first letter of the month! This tragic and puerile effort produced what was supposed to be a speller, not a

syllabus. A recently published syllabus arranged the words alphabetically, since it did not lay claim to be anything more than a guide.

A recent speller has adopted the plan of arranging words in lessons according to their relation to an experience or group of related experiences in the child's life. One lesson, consisting of four days' work, includes the following words:

1	2	3	4
oak	root	ripe	brown
once	stem	pie	grass
tiny	grew	bake	lend
only	rain	green	drag
leaf	helped	yellow	pick

The central qualities grouping these words in lessons are quite apparent. The opportunities for context use of the words are increased and the spelling is easily related to other subjects and they to spelling. Such grouping of words is a tremendous advance over the perfectly random arrangement observed in many spellers.

A rather widely adopted plan of grouping words is according to their phonetic similarity. On this point there is some objective evidence available. Such grouping has been widely practiced since Wagner (1; 254) and Tidyman and Johnson (1; 251) published their studies of the value of grouping words according to similar difficulties.

Wagner's experiment was conducted in two sixth grade classes, A and B, which included 28 and 22 pupils respectively. A list of two hundred words was compiled from the textbooks in other subjects which the pupils of these classes studied. Class A formed the experimental group, and the words were arranged in thirty groups having from two to sixteen words each. Each such group contained words having similar spelling difficulty. Ten lessons were arranged and in each lesson there were from one to three words from several groupings. The spelling lesson contained twenty words as was the usual practice in the schools. The same words were presented in chance order in the lessons in Class B. In the preliminary and final tests the pupils spelled fifty words each day for four days. In Class A the attention of the class was specifically directed to the following points:

1. To which group of the list may this word be added?

2. What words have already been learned that will help in remembering this word?

3. Name *all* the words already learned that will help in remembering this word.

Aside from these directions, the words were taught in the usual way, and each word was written twice by the pupils. In Class B the teacher refrained from calling the attention of the pupils to any similarities in the words, but each word was written three times instead of two, as in Class A. Words that were misspelled were counted as errors but classified according to whether the mistake was in the group element or in some other part of the word. Table 2 summarizes the findings.

TABLE 2.—*Wagner's Results* (1; 254, p. 15)

	Group A		Group B	
	Prelim.	Final	Prelim.	Final
Total words to spell.....	5,600	5,600	4,400	4,400
Total words misspelled.....	1,772	160	1,177	282
Average misspelled per pupil.....	63.3	5.7	53.5	12.8
Standing of class.....	63.36	97.14	73.25	93.6
Method.....	Grouping		Not grouping	

It is quite evident that the two groups were not equal in the initial tests, and the gains made are therefore not comparable. The gains made by the class in which the words were grouped according to spelling difficulty gained considerably more than the pupils in the control group. Eliminating the inequalities observed in the above table, Wagner concludes that "The study of words arranged into groups according to similarity in spelling difficulty is 20 per cent better than the usual non-grouping method of arrangement and study" (1; 254, p. 18).

This study, which is frequently quoted and cited as justification for grouping words according to phonetic similarity, was repeated by Tidyman and Johnson. The principal defect in the Wagner investigation arose from the small number of pupils. The class that participated in the Tidyman and Johnson study numbered only twenty-three pupils. Eighty words common to

the vocabulary of fifth grade pupils were divided into two lists of equal difficulty according to a preliminary test. The forty words that formed the non-grouping list were taught in a random arrangement at the rate of ten words a day for four days. During the first four days of the next week, the other forty words were taught in the same way except that the words were grouped according to their similarity. In the preliminary and final tests the words were presented in a chance order. The results are contained in Table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Grouping Words According to Similarity*  
(Tidyman and Johnson, 1; 251)

	Non-grouping method			Grouping method		
	Prelim.	Friday	May	Prelim.	Friday	May
Number of pupils.....	23	23	23	23	23	23
Total right.....	618	825	796	605	861	824
Gain over prelim. test.....		207	178		256	219
Per cent gain.....		68.5	58.9		81.2	69.5

Friday test immediately followed the learning exercise.

May test was given eleven or twelve weeks after the Friday test.

Among the words taught without grouping there were fifteen that could not be grouped without stretching the concept of similarity. Had the authors not counted these words in the final results, the conclusions would have been strengthened. Counting only the words that could be grouped but which were not, the gain was 71.7, while the gain made in the words that could not be grouped was 63.2. It is evident from this that children derived some benefit merely from the presentation of the words in lessons that were close together, even though no attention was directed towards the similarities. When the similarities are pointed out, the gains are considerably greater. Tidyman and Johnson state that "With these facts in mind we may conclude that, within the scope of the experiment, grouping words of similar difficulty together in spelling is a significant factor, and that grouping words for study secures approximately 10 per cent better results than the study of words in a chance order" (1; 251, p. 301).



The substantial agreement between these two investigations, as well as the logic of the situation, indicate that grouping of words by similarity of structure is of assistance in learning spelling. This is the practice in many spellers. Words such as *book*, *look*, and *took* are usually grouped together, without, of course, introducing words simply because of such similarity.

To what extent can words be grouped both on the basis of meaning and similarity of difficulty? No attempt to answer this question has been made and no study has discovered the relative merits of the two methods. It would appear that the advantages of both methods could be combined without sacrificing principles of teaching spelling that are of value.

Homonyms constitute a class of words which are more difficult than other words, and the question of method of teaching them has not been finally settled. The inconclusive nature of the evidence on this problem has tolerated the two alternative methods of teaching them, separately or together. Some texts employ one procedure, while others use the opposite.

The problem of homonyms was recognized by Pearson, whose study of them was the first endeavor at an objective determination of this phase of spelling method. Pearson recommended that homonyms be taught together. Later Finkenbinder presented evidence that favored the separate method. A recent text states that on the basis of "specific experimental evidence" homonyms are taught together but the "specific experimental evidence" is not given.

Homonyms are among the most difficult words that pupils must learn, and there are enough of them to warrant special study of the best method of teaching them. One speller contains sixty-one pairs of such words, and practically all of them are commonly used. Such words as *there* and *their*, *eight* and *ate*, occur early in the grades and are a source of much confusion.

A brief review of the evidence on the methods of grouping such words will indicate the validity of the arguments on behalf of the principal methods of teaching homonyms. Pearson's investigation (1; 194) was first published in 1911 and reprinted in 1912 (1; 195). Two classes in each grade from the third to the seventh formed the experimental groups. Five pairs of homonyms were taught in each of the ten classes. In five classes the homonyms were taught by the "together" method and in the

other five classes by the "separate" method. Preliminary and final tests were used to measure the gains. The experiment lasted only five days, and the lesson each day included a number

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Methods of Teaching Homonyms*  
Pearson and Knight (1; 194)

Grade	Room	Errors on first test	Errors on final test	Net decrease	Number of pupils	Average decrease per pupil
Together						
Horace Mann:						
3.....	109	142	66	76	29	2.62
4.....	200	58	26	32	27	1.19
5.....	201	101	70	31	27	1.15
6.....	206	142	41	101	27	3.78
7.....	208	97	29	68	25	2.72
Av.....						2.29
Montclair:						
3.....	B	124	46	78	26	3.00
4.....	B	109	58	51	37	1.57
5.....	A	74	26	48	27	1.78
6.....	B	158	47	111	23	4.83
7.....	B	101	41	60	30	2.00
Av.....						2.63
Separate						
Horace Mann:						
3.....	110	148	87	61	26	2.35
4.....	111	74	54	20	27	.74
5.....	202	136	89	47	27	1.74
6.....	203	120	76	44	27	1.63
7.....	209	95	54	41	26	1.58
Av.....						1.61
Montclair:						
3.....	A	79	23	56	23	2.43
4.....	A	66	37	29	31	.93
5.....	Adv.	126	65	61	29	2.10
6.....	A	143	42	101	30	3.38
7.....	A	85	14	71	31	2.29
Av.....						2.24

of words in addition to the homonyms. The final tests were given ten days after the lessons were concluded. The results of the experiment are presented in Table 4.

The results favor the "together" method in all grades except the fifth. This method of expressing the results is somewhat unsatisfactory, and Pearson also states the changes in terms of the improvement made by the ten classes. The improvements in each class are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Comparison of Improvement According to Method of Teaching Homonyms*  
Pearson and Knight (1; 194)

Grade	Horace Mann		Montclair	
	Together	Separate	Together	Separate
3.....	20.4	20.1	36.0	21.8
4.....	8.8	4.4	20.0	15.3
5.....	13.9	12.5	29.3	17.4
6.....	32.0	11.3	40.2	40.4
7.....	18.5	13.1	23.6	27.7

Viewed according to the improvement made in relation to the errors on the first test, the "together" method yields superior results in all grades, although in two grades the difference is negligible. When pupils are classified according to initial ability in spelling, the poor spellers gained more from the "together" method in all grades except the third and the good spellers showed the same tendency in all grades except the fifth. The results classified according to the ability of the pupils are given in Table 6.

The same experiment in all its details was repeated by Knight under Pearson's direction and was reported with Pearson's own study. Knight's results in the Montclair schools are presented in Table 4. Here, again, the "together" method was superior to the separate method in three of the grades, while the "separate" method yielded better results in two grades, the fifth and seventh. Using average improvement as the measure of the efficiency of the methods, the results in Table 5 indicate the superiority of the "together" method except in the sixth and seventh grades.

TABLE 6.—*Gains According to Method and Initial Ability of Pupils*

(Pearson, 1; 194)

Grades	Good spellers, average improvement		Poor spellers, average improvement	
	Together	Separate	Together	Separate
3.....	11.1	7.2	9.3	12.9
4.....	2.1	1.4	6.3	3.
5.....	2.7	3.3	11.2	9.2
6.....	7.2	2.3	20.1	9.
7.....	6.7	6.	11.8	6.1

The differences are sometimes very small and probably insignificant, considering the small numbers of pupils in the grades.

On the basis of these two experiments, Pearson recommended the "together" method of teaching homonyms, and his suggestion was followed in many texts. Several criticisms have been made of these two studies. The small numbers of pupils in the classes must be considered. The experiment lasted such a short time that it was impossible to separate the words completely in the classes where the "separate" method was followed. Finkenbinder has pointed to certain limitations in the methods of handling the results. Finkenbinder calls attention to the fact that no gains were possible for some of the more proficient pupils who obtained perfect scores the first time. In other words, the pupils' existing knowledge of homonyms had been gained through the separate teaching of them, as was the practice in the teaching of spelling in the schools where this study was conducted.

Finkenbinder used somewhat different methods in his study of this problem (1; 65). The study extended over eight days and was concerned with two lists of homonyms, designated as Groups A and B, each of which consisted of twelve pairs of homonyms. A rotation method was used so as to equalize the groups of words and the abilities of the pupils in the three classes of fourth grade children. In one school the words of List A were studied by the "separate" method, while the same words were being studied by the "together" method in a second school. This procedure was reversed for List B. In a third class, half of the A words and

half of the B words were studied by the "together" method and the remainder by the "separate" method.

In presenting the results, Finkenbinder computed the percentage of words learned as indicated by the tests that were given a month after the teaching of the words was concluded. The number of "confusions" was also obtained for each class and method. A "confusion" is a word that was spelled correctly on the first test but incorrectly on the last test. The author attaches a great deal of importance to these, since they signify interference of associations. The percentages of correct spellings are computed separately for the homonyms according to whether one or both words of the pair required study. Finkenbinder's results are summarized in Table 7.

When only one word of a pair required study, the advantage seems to lie with the "separate" method of teaching, but the difference between the two methods is insignificant. When both words required study, the advantage of the "separate" method is greater. Both methods involved considerable confusion. Finkenbinder cites numerous instances of words being spelled by some pupils on the first test but not on the second. "For example, in the preliminary test, 'two' (studied in pair with 'too' in the Woodland Street school) was misspelled by *two* pupils; immediately after study it was misspelled by none; but one month later it was misspelled by *five* pupils! It looks here as if study (by the together method) is not only of no value but positively injurious to the pupils" (1; 65, p. 247).

Finkenbinder states that the words were not separated by a sufficient period of time to prevent many such conflicting associations. It might be advisable, therefore, to separate the members of a pair of homonyms by as much as a year. He adds that there may be some words of this type that may be profitably taught together.

Disregarding evidence that is said to exist but which is not available, these results favor the separate method of teaching homonyms, but, in view of the present confused situation, either practice can be partially justified and neither can be definitely regarded as incorrect. There is need of an extensive study of this problem with evaluations of the many factors involved. Which word of a pair should be taught first? The conclusion that seems tenable in the light of the evidence is that words should





be taught as they are needed and no word should be introduced simply because it is a homonym of a word in the spelling lesson. If a pair occur at or about the same time, they will have to be taught together with stress laid upon them to avert confusion.

Grouping according to phonetic similarity suggests that rules might be made the basis of grading and grouping words in spelling. The discussion of rules as a factor in the teaching of spelling is postponed to a later article in this series. Rules may be considered an aid to learning when they are properly employed, but they do not provide a basis for grouping words for presentation to children. Nothing has been said in this review about derivatives and their relation to the corresponding root forms. Rules and derivatives may therefore be considered together in their relation to modern practice in the teaching of spelling in the elementary school.

T. G. FORAN.

## THE DEAN IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

A glance at some of the reports of the United States Bureau of Education reveals an astonishing growth in school enrollment in the past fifty years. This growth cannot be entirely credited to the increase in population. The population of the United States increased from 50,155,783 in 1880 to 105,710,620 in 1920 and to approximately 125,000,000 in 1930. This represents a growth of 150 per cent in fifty years. School enrollment in 1880 for boys and girls between the ages of 5 and 17 was 15,065,767. In 1920 it had increased to 27,728,788, a gain of 90 per cent, and in 1930 had continued to 100 per cent over that of 1880. While this growth is remarkable, it is even more phenomenal to note an increase from 4 to 55 per cent of the boys and girls between the ages of 15 and 18 enrolled in the secondary schools. With the growth of population, new inventions, increased use of machinery, and the change from rural to urban life, new problems have arisen.

These changes have led people to realize the great need for education in a world of keen competition. They have brought about specialization in industry, profession, and education. Parents who formerly felt that secondary education was unnecessary now send their children to high school and to college. The value of an education is not questioned today by an intelligent community. Life has become a stone of many facets bewildering to many adults. How great, then, must be the confusion of modern youth—adolescents who are beginning to formulate a philosophy of life.

It is in an attempt to assist the adolescent girl to face and solve her problems that the comparatively new position of dean has been created. Adolescence is the time for educators to build up attitudes, and by right associations develop a love for that which is good. Psychologists claim that the period in which ideals are formed is between the ages of 14 and 24. Teachers once assumed the responsibility of giving the guidance needed at this period, but their duties have increased so greatly that it has become impossible for the teacher, in large schools especially, to do justice to the pupils in the matter of guidance. The home has shifted many of its former responsibilities to the school

and many new subjects have been introduced into school curricula which necessitate more training and more specialization on the part of teachers. Education has taken on a mass aspect similar in some respects to that found in industrial mass production. With larger classes and increased subject-matter the teacher has not the necessary time for personal contacts with pupils. To whom, then, can the adolescent girl have recourse for counsel and guidance at a time when she most needs it? She is setting up her ideals, formulating her ideas and trying to express herself. Then, if ever, is a safe and sane philosophy of life needed to work out her destiny.

A study made in 1919 showed that colleges and secondary schools were attempting guidance by delegating that duty to a woman known by the various titles of matron, vice-principal, assistant principal, adviser, dean, student counselor, preceptress. Since that study was made, a great deal has been done to establish the status of dean. Superintendents who once questioned the need of such a position are now insisting upon having a dean on the staff of their high schools. The dean herself has done much to validate her position. She has made herself indispensable. Although her work is intensely personal, it is far reaching in its results. The duties are broad in scope and depend to a certain measure upon the nature of her community and the types of people with whom she is dealing. There is no end to the good that can be done by a dean in high school. The scope and quality of her work will be limited only by her own foundation or equipment for the work and her physical endurance. It is an exceedingly trying position which demands exceptional qualities, but one is more than repaid for her efforts in the results that may be achieved. There is a joy in studying youth and helping each to discover her own possibilities and showing her how to meet life in terms of her own best self. The dean believes with the poet Shelley—"Yet every heart contains perfection's germ." She strives to discover the germ of perfection in the heart of each girl and gives her the kindly interest, the sympathetic guidance, the wise counsel necessary to develop and reach the goal of perfection.

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## ANNUAL REPORT OF THE FRANCISCAN EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

The Report of the Twelfth Annual Meeting of the Franciscan Educational Conference, held in Herman, Pa., June 30 and July 1 and 2, 1930, contains twelve interesting papers on "Philosophy," the subject discussed at the meeting. The paper entitled "The Franciscan School of Philosophy" by Rev. James O'Mahony, O.M.Cap., B.D., Ph.D., is a frank and original statement regarding the Franciscan attitude toward the purpose of philosophy. "Coördination of the Various Parts of Philosophy," by Rev. Gerald Schmalz, O.F.M., Lect. Phil., presents a plan for a new sequence of subjects in the teaching of philosophy.

In his paper, "Teaching the History of Philosophy," Rev. Claude Mindorff, O.F.C., Lect. Jub. Phil., gives a definite and concrete view of the Quid, the Quare and the Quomodo of teaching the history of philosophy. As to the method of teaching the history of philosophy, not the memory of the student is to be taxed, but rather his thinking power. Causes are to be stressed and an explanation given as to how a question rooted in the past reaches over to the future.

"How Can We Vitalize Our Course of Philosophy and Make It Meet Contemporary Modes of Thought?" by Rev. Edwin Dorzweiler, O.M.Cap., A.M., stresses the point that "philosophy can be a vital subject only as long as it maintains a wholesome contact with contemporary modes of thought. Once it loses this human touch it begins to feed on itself and soon withers and shrivels up in its own emptiness."

Rev. Berard Vogt, O.F.M., Ph.D., in his paper "Methods in Teaching Philosophy," offers many practical suggestions on how to teach the subject of philosophy. "The Correlation of Science and Philosophy," by Rev. Hubert Vecchierello, O.F.M., Ph.D., presents some of the thought-provoking problems facing modern educators. Father Vecchierello advocates a thorough training of candidates for the priesthood in the best scientific methods obtainable. The paper "The Value of Empirical Psychology," by Rev. James Van der Veldt, O.F.M., Ph.D., is based on the thesis: "Considering the development of science, it is very useful and in some respects necessary for students of philosophy and



theology to become sufficiently acquainted with the findings of empirical psychology, and that in a special course."

"The Philosophy Curriculum," a paper by Rev. Cyprian Mensing, O.F.M., A.M., Ph.D., gives the results of a painstaking investigation of the philosophy curriculum in fourteen Franciscan schools and four diocesan seminaries. In his paper, "The Social Sciences in Our Course of Philosophy," the Rev. Cyprian Emanuel, O.F.M., Ph.D., strongly urges the use of the epoch-making Encyclical, the "Rerum Novarum" of Pope Leo XIII, as a text for the Course. "Theodicy and Ethics," a paper by Rev. David Baier, O.F.M., S.T.D., is a clear statement of the author's position as to the place which these two studies should occupy in the philosophy course.

Rev. John Baptist Schunk, O.F.M., Lect. Gen., in his paper "The Teaching of Epistemology," shows clearly that epistemology should not be considered a part of psychology but should rather be looked upon as a science in itself. "The Teaching of Ontology," by Rev. Cuthbert Dittmeier, O.M.C., D.D., Ph.D., brings out the fact the general metaphysics should be taught at the very end of the course in philosophy, or at least towards the end.

## EDUCATIONAL NOTES

### ENFORCING OF ENGLISH SCHOOL BILL DEFERRED

After many months of agitation by Catholics to secure more government help for non-provided schools—Catholic schools among them—before the new education bill comes into force, the English Government has provided a breathing space by postponing the operation of the bill until September, 1932.

The bill—which was to have gone into effect next April—provides for the raising of the school-leaving age to 15, and would have involved Catholics in an estimated expenditure of about \$5,000,000 on the erection of new school buildings.

The postponement of the operation of the bill will allow more time to be given to the negotiations proceeding between the Minister of Education, Sir Charles Trevelyan, and the Catholic authorities. He is already considering a proposal made by Catholic members of Parliament which they hope will meet the demand for more state control of the schools if the Government gives them more financial aid.

An important statement announcing a step toward a settlement is soon expected from Sir Charles.

### CENTENARY OF SIMON BOLIVAR

Many Catholic colleges and schools held special exercises on December 17 in honor of the centenary of Simon Bolivar, apostle of liberty and champion of democracy.

Through the courtesy of the Pan American Union, the Department of Education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference was able to furnish all Catholic colleges with literature appropriate to the occasion.

### MT. ST. VINCENT'S AUDITORIUM DEDICATED

His Eminence Patrick Cardinal Hayes, Archbishop of New York, on December 4 blessed and dedicated the new \$1,000,000 auditorium and gymnasium of the College of Mt. St. Vincent-on-the-Hudson in the presence of 400 guests, including many distinguished members of the clergy. The building will be named after Cardinal Hayes, who is president of Mt. St. Vincent.

Cardinal Hayes, in his address, described his recent trip to

the Coast and expressed his gratification at the manifestations of results achieved by the Sisters of Charity, who conduct Mt. St. Vincent, in their various schools.

Dr. James J. Walsh, noted Catholic layman, also spoke.

Among prominent clergymen present were Msgr. Michael J. Lavelle, rector of St. Patrick's Cathedral; the Rt. Rev. Msgr. John P. Chidwick, president of New Rochelle College; Msgr. Stephen J. Donahue, secretary to the Cardinal; the Very Rev. Msgr. John F. Brady, vice-president of Mt. St. Vincent; while the Board of Education of the City of New York was represented by William J. O'Shea, superintendent of Schools, and William J. McGrath, president of the Board of Examiners.

#### NEW ST. FRANCIS SEMINARY

His Eminence William Cardinal O'Connell, Archbishop of Boston, officiated at the dedication and blessing of the new St. Francis Seraphic Seminary in North Tewksbury, Mass., on December 4. The new structure cost \$750,000.

The Cardinal, in his address to the priests and students, spoke in Italian and English, and held up the simplicity and poverty of St. Francis as an example which should be taken seriously "in these days of greed and riches, of so much wealth, and of so much ambition to be rich."

#### RESEARCH BIBLIOGRAPHY

Research study subjects in education have been collected and published by the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, in a bibliography covering the 1928-1929 school year.

The bibliography, prepared by Miss Edith A. Wright in the library division of the Office of Education, lists 3,065 investigations by 317 research agencies. It gives information on 217 doctors' theses and 1,209 masters' theses.

The theses tabulation represents a continuation of work done by Dr. Walter S. Monroe, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, from 1917 to 1927.

Material for the bibliography was obtained from replies to letters of inquiry sent to all agencies known by the Office of Education to be engaged in educational research, including colleges and universities, city and state research bureaus, and educational organizations.

Copies of the bibliography may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents. The price is 45 cents.

#### NEED FOR LIBRARY BOOKS

The Teachers' College of St. John University, Toledo, Ohio, is making a drive to increase its library. Although a fair sized library has been started, it does not at present meet the demands of the Sisters. There were 637 teachers in attendance at the college during the summer of 1930, and the enrollment during the present session is 312.

The library can use to best advantage books on the following subjects: Animals, art and artists, banks and banking, birds, business, civics, commerce and trade, decoration and design, debating, economics, essays, finance, flowers, fish, gardens and gardening, geography, government, handiwork, health, history, home economics, industry, insects, law and legislation, mathematics, minerals, music and musicians, orations, poetry, political science, radio, public speaking, religion, ships and shipping, sports, taxation, transportation, travel, and wars.

## REVIEWS AND NOTICES

**Christ's Gift, the Mass**, by Rev. Daniel F. Cunningham. New York: Benziger Brothers. Price, \$1.20.

In "Christ's Gift, the Mass," we have the ideal Missal for the many people who have sincerely wished "to pray the Mass," but who, in their attempt to do so, have lost their fervor in the confusion of frequent cross references required in using the daily Missal. Repeated failure "to keep up with the priest" usually resulted in surrender to discouragement and return to the old way of praying during the Mass.

The convenient arrangement of this Missal avoids all cross references but such as refer to the Canon of the Mass. The Mass for every Sunday of the year is complete in one section excepting the Canon, which occurs but once. The faithful are hereby enabled to follow the priest in the prayers of the Mass with ease and devotion. The disturbing element of cross references having been removed, they can find time during the Mass to appreciate the strength and beauty of the prayers which Holy Church prescribes for the Sundays of the Liturgical Year and which include in their petitions all the needs of mankind.

The style of type is convenient and designed to avoid eye strain. The size and general appearance of the book are pleasing. Children are proud to carry the Missal which they know so well how to use. High school pupils and past high school pupils are charmed with the simplicity and dignity of it. When they see the book, they feel the need of it; they want it.

The Missal leaves but one problem still unsolved. When "praying the Mass" has been made the practice of a life, no other prayer during Mass can satisfy the soul but those of the Missal. In "Christ's Gift, the Mass," the Sundays and Holy Days of obligation alone receive consideration. What, then, shall be done when the Forty Hours Devotion is opened solemnly with the Mass of the Holy Eucharist and there is no Mass of the Holy Eucharist in the Missal? How shall pupils interested in the liturgy be made contented on the Sundays when the Mass of a greater feast supersedes the Mass of the Sunday? There might be an objection to enlarging the book by the addition of some special Masses, but the excellence and value of the Missal would undoubtedly be increased.

SR. M. DOMINICA, O.S.U.



**Religion Outlines for Colleges**, Vol. III, by John M. Cooper, D.D. Washington: The Catholic Education Press, 1930. Pp. 509. \$1.80.

Some books are mechanical, others breathe a spirit; some betray inexperience, others gain recognition as the work of a master; some go along the beaten path, others chart better highways; some are ephemeral, others are epochal. Dr. Cooper's new college textbook for the Junior year is not mechanical, does not betray inexperience, does not follow the beaten paths of texts, and will not be ephemeral.

Certain shifts in the teaching of religion are receiving the earnest attention of alert teachers:

1. Colleges are aware at last that they must place better men in the Religion department. Dissatisfaction among the students is reacting on college heads. During two decades, Dr. Cooper has given his best to the teaching of religion at the Catholic University. He had studied the attitudes and the needs of the students. This text is the result of his tireless effort to meet the need. It deserves a place in our colleges.

2. Mere rationalizing in the Religion classes has been dethroned and the appeal to the heart has found a place equal in importance to rationalizing. Emphasis on defending one's Faith has been changed to living one's Faith. Dr. Cooper's texts head the list in this regard.

3. Pressure from the students for the "practical" should not, however, catch the Catholic teacher unaware, and lead him to the belief that, as in other branches, questionnaires only can supply a basis for a course. Dogma comes from above. Revelation is the great searchlight that guides us in the darkness of doubt as to what to teach. This text follows a middle course. It brings divine guidance to concrete needs. The teacher will find here the correct approach for the instilling of proper attitudes of reverence and appreciation for Christ and His Church.

4. The most recent attacks on Religion center around the sociological explanation of the natural origin and evolution of religious beliefs. Being an anthropologist and a sociologist, Dr. Cooper is qualified to present the Church from the best viewpoint. He anticipates the methods of those who would exclude the divine from Religion.

With a view to handling the problems of attitude and action that are involved in membership in the Church, the author treats

in this volume of the Governing, Teaching, Sanctifying Functions of the Church and the Evidences for her Mission. This is followed by the Structure, Organization and Relations to Society of the Church. The last six chapters comprise a beautiful summary of the reasons for loyalty to the Church's Founder. References are ample and timely. Sometimes the references are needlessly doubled, as in the case of the article by F. J. Schaeffer (Pp. 84-85). Perhaps more problems peculiar to the college girl might have been treated.

The student will be impressed by the freshness of treatment. His own problems are there solved for him. There is no bitterness of controversy, no uncharitableness of one-sided view; yet there is no trimming of principle. Such a text is bound to aid the student in his approach to Christ. This text, Volume III, is easily the best of the four texts Dr. Cooper has produced.

W. H. RUSSELL.

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**Le Catholicisme: Ses Pédagogues; Sa Pédagogie**, by Rev. Franz DeHovre. Translated from the Flemish by Georg Simeons, with a Preface by F. W. Forester. Bruxelles: Librairie Albert Dewit, 1930. Pp. 454.

Nothing speaks better for the future of education than the growing interest in the philosophical bases of the science. Too long have educators dissipated their energies in the intensive cultivation of one or other section of the field without first making a comprehensive survey of the whole terrain. The result was what might have been expected: a congeries of one-sided views of education bearing no relation one to another. Now a wholesome reaction has set in and leaders in the field are insisting that we first determine what education is and what it is intended to accomplish before we set about devising procedures for the conduct of the process. They are convinced, and rightly so, that courses of study, methods of teaching, school legislation and supervision, to mention only a few of the specialized divisions of the subject, will have a meaning only when we have a clear view of the end to be attained. In a word, they maintain that the most important task confronting the teacher is the formulation of a definite philosophy of education.

While it may be said without exaggeration that this has always been the contention of Catholic educators, it is encourag-

ing to note that the Church is ably represented in the modern movement for a broader and deeper consideration of the whole subject of education. And not the least among these spokesmen of Catholic Education is the author of *Le Catholicisme: Ses Pédagogues; Sa Pédagogie*. Dr. DeHovre is already known to many of our readers who are familiar with his *Essai de Philosophie Pédagogique* which was reviewed in these pages. The present work is a sequel to that volume and there is no doubt but that it will go far toward establishing his position as a Catholic educator of the first rank.

The work is divided into four parts. Part I deals with the intimate connection of Philosophy and Education and lays down the proposition that "All education is based on a philosophy of life; . . . all true education on the true philosophy of life." The author then goes on to show how this "law," as he calls it, is exemplified in the educational theories of the past and of modern times. He then proceeds to point out several practical consequences for education which flow from the working of this law.

Part II sketches in broad outlines the Catholic Philosophy of Life which is defended as the only system that presents a unified and comprehensive view of the world and of man. The author's development of the concept of Catholicity as a synthesis of opposing views, a *coincidentia oppositorum*, in which all the contradictions of life are satisfactorily solved, is particularly good. The student of philosophy will find in this chapter new light on the solution of problems that may have seemed to him vague and incomprehensible.

Part III is taken up with a series of studies dealing with five representative Catholic Educators of modern times, viz., Spalding, Dupanloup, Newman, Mercier and Willmann. The studies are critical and exhaustive and the author reveals not only a wide acquaintance with the writings of these leaders but also a fine appreciation of their several contributions to Catholic thought. Of special interest to American readers are his analyses of the educational philosophy of Spalding and Newman.

Part IV, recurring to the plan of Part II, is devoted to a discussion of the basic principles of Catholic Education. The author first disposes of a number of prejudices that beset modern educational thought and prevent their adherents from seeing the wisdom and truth of the Catholic Philosophy of Life and Educa-

tion. He then proceeds to describe the essential character of the Catholic System which lies, as he says, in its intimate relation to the whole doctrine of Christ and His Church. Catholicism considers man in his relations to the Creator, to Christ and to the Church. These are so many coordinate centers about which the whole of man's life revolves. Catholic Education aims to give unity and purpose to human life by assisting the individual to adjust himself to this divine plan of the universe in which mind and body, intellect and will, art and science, religion and morality, the individual and society, freedom and authority, work and leisure, the Christian and the citizen have each to play a part, and in which the antagonisms that naturally exist or are wont to arise between these several aspects of man's life are either eliminated or reduced to a minimum. It is thus conceived as an agency, at once human and divine, of realizing the aim of Redemption: the restoration of the harmony between Creator and creature, between the natural and the supernatural, that was destroyed by Original Sin. That this conception of education may become more widely known is the earnest hope of all who are interested in the spread of Christ's Kingdom on earth and Dr. DeHovre is to be congratulated on the splendid work he is doing for the advancement of this cause.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

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**Graded Penmanship for Catholic Schools**, Books 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, by Brother Eugene. Columbus: The Zaner-Bloser Company, 1929. Price, \$1.20 per doz., or \$0.15 per copy.

A new series of six booklets with graded exercises in penmanship from the pen of Brother Eugene, O.S.F., Community Supervisor in the Diocese of Brooklyn, is indicative of his zeal for the advancement of the schools under his supervision. These booklets are simple, concise, attractive, and, on the whole, pedagogically sound.

The series is planned to give the needed drill for penmanship in the first six grades of the elementary schools. Each booklet consists of 32 pages of exercises and is prefaced by a brief but clear-cut expression of aims for the work of the year and definite directions of procedure. Each book ends with a standard of attainment for the given grade; this standard is sometimes loosely spoken of in the books as a *scale*, though only one quality

of penmanship is offered. The graph chart introduced in the fourth grade and referred to in the succeeding grades is a splendid idea, though the directions might more explicit. Three suggestions to the teacher for diagnostic testing in the fourth grade have much to commend them to both teachers and pupils.

In the Primary Grades, the child is taught all the small letters and all the capitals. In truly Greek fashion, he is taught to trace the letters and words, thus getting the proper movement into his muscles. He is required to write on the blackboard with chalk of a proper length before he starts with pencil on paper. It is sound pedagogy to emphasize, as Brother Eugene does, the correct idea of the movement to be made or the form of the word to be written before drilling on the same to establish the proper habit. Similarly, it is sound pedagogy to write words and sentences, and then to drill on letters which cause difficulty. The sequence of the letters chosen for special drill seems in a few cases a little arbitrary. The suggested "Picture Word Book" and the keeping on file of a page a week motivates the work of the child while the artistic but simple pictures in the booklets themselves lend interest and vividness. Just why the author changed from sentences to a string of disconnected words on the last two pages of Book I is not clear.

In these primary grades the exercises aim to establish the mechanics of good writing while the three middle grades perfect the work by analyzing good penmanship and indicating the various elements which contribute to it; namely, position, form, slant, alignment, speed, and spacing. The necessity of writing legibly, rapidly, and easily is vividly brought home to the pupil and used to motivate intelligent practice. A form of single stroke lettering is introduced in the fourth grade.

This series of exercise books will make a strong appeal to all teachers who favor a smooth muscular form of writing. In stressing position, rhythmic movement, form, and speed they are in nothing inferior to the well-known Palmer books, while in attractiveness and vitality they seem to the reviewer to be superior. They well deserve careful consideration in all such schools as use the muscular movement penmanship.

A SISTER OF DIVINE PROVIDENCE,  
Melbourne, Kentucky.



**Planning Your Future**, by George E. Myers, Gladys M. Little, and Sarah A. Robinson. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1930. Pp. 417.

There has been no dearth of vocational literature during the past few years. This work designed primarily for students of the junior high school age, is one of the most comprehensive yet attempted, yet, like most works of its nature, it fails to emphasize the social and spiritual implications of different fields of labor. It follows the classification of occupations given by the United States Census.

"Planning Your Future" covers the field of occupational civics under four headings. The first, "The World of Occupations," gives a general perspective of the occupational field with one chapter emphasizing the necessity of an intelligent choice. The vocational rather than cultural implications of education are emphasized in "How School Helps You To Plan and Prepare for a Successful Career" and "What Subjects Should You Take in School?"

From the viewpoint of typographical excellence this work is beyond criticism save in one respect;—it continually throws before the child pictures which, while interesting, may not stimulate thought along the lines suggested in the text. A very helpful chapter in the second section of the work, "Occupations in Your Community," discusses the changes in the occupational field. In the third section, "Facts Every Worker Should Know," such practical crises in life as changing jobs, being out of work, and adjustment to working conditions are discussed ably though perhaps too briefly.

Part IV is devoted to the process of finding one's place. While introducing many common sense suggestions it fails to satisfy either as motivating toward or directing adequately to that end. However, one should not expect too much of a text designed merely for junior high school students who may not be able to see life in its wider implications.

The authors of this work have a facility of expression as well as an unlimited fund of information to add to the value of their effort. Possibly they might have kept more clearly before their vision the incomparable idealism of youth, and the various occupations might also have been discussed with relationship to their place in the Christian ideal of life. The school which gives

to the student only a job and not a vision in life is not fulfilling its mission. "Planning Your Future" will be extremely helpful as a reference work for Catholic teachers interested in imparting vocational information, but the Catholic teacher should supply always that spiritual insight which alone makes a work worthy of the effort of a lifetime.

MAURICE S. SHEEHY.

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### Books Received

#### *Educational*

Good, Iris Cleve, M.A.; Crow, Jane M., M.A.: *Home-Room Activities*. New York: Professional & Technical Press, 1930. Pp. xv+325. Price, \$3.25.

Johnston, John B., Ph.D.: *The Liberal College in Changing Society*. New York: The Century Co. Pp. viii+326. Price, \$2.50.

Manuel, Herschel T.: *The Education of Mexican and Spanish-Speaking Children in Texas*. Austin: The University of Texas. Pp. 172. Price, \$1.25.

Patterson, Samuel White, Ph.D.: *Teaching the Child to Read*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co. Pp. xii+524. Price, \$2.50.

#### *Textbooks*

Ashton, Mina Pearl: *Tales From Story-Town*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co. Pp. 141. Price, \$0.70.

Butcher, M. A.: *Work-Test Manual in American History*. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 173. Price, \$0.64.

Greenwood, M. A., R.R.: *A Preface to Literature*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. ix+110.

Haertter, Leonard D., M.A.: *Instructional Tests and Chapter Tests for a First Course in Algebra*. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. Pp. 160. Price, \$0.56, Teachers' Manual, \$0.20.

Hall, Norman H.: *Remedial Lessons in Spelling*. Chicago: Hall & McCreary Co. Pp. 96. Price, cloth, \$0.36, paper, \$0.16.

Holmes, Burton and Wheeler, William H.: *Burton Holmes Travel Stories—China*. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. vii+408. Price, \$1.28.

Lide, Alice Alison, and Alison, Annie H.: *Tambalo and Other Stories of Far Lands*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co. Pp. 160. Price, \$0.70.

McMunigle, Mary G.: *Art Education Through Religion*. New York: Mentzer, Bush & Company, 31 E. 10th St., 1930. 8 books, pp. 47 each. Price 20 cents each.

Nicholas, Madaline and Rivera, Guillermo: *Cuentos y Leyendas de España*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co. Pp. vii+206. Price, \$1.00.

Simpson, Thomas Marshall, Ph.D.: *Plane Trigonometry and Logarithms*. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. Pp. 174+111. Price, \$1.52.

Villinger, Lou: *Children of Our Wilds*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co. Pp. 152. Price, \$0.75.

Wallace, R. R.: *Geometry Workbook*. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co. Pp. 164. Price, \$0.76.

Walsh, James J., M.D., Ph.D., Litt.D.: *A Golden Treasury of Medieval Literature*. Boston: The Stratford Co. Pp. xvi+314. Price, School Ed., \$2.50, Special Ed., \$3.50.

#### General

Kelly, Gerald, S.J.: *Terry Donovan*. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. 231.

Ludovisi, Rev. Mother M. Boncompagni: *Bread of Heaven*. New York: P. J. Kenedy & Sons. Pp. 456. Price, Imitation Leather, \$2.50. Leather, \$3.50 and up.

Norman, Mrs. George: *Brigit*. New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. 310. Price, \$2.00.

Sheen, Fulton J., Ph.D.: *The Divine Romance*. New York: The Century Co. Pp. viii+142. Price, \$1.50.

Tolley, William Pearson: *The Idea of God in the Philosophy of St. Augustine*. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc. Pp. ix+214. Price, \$2.00.

Wade, Mary H.: *The New Pioneers*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. Pp. 280.